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ABSTRACT

This volume contains an overview of bilingual education in each of the five extra-state jurisdictions which the study staff visited: American Samoa, Guam, the Commonwealth of Puerto Rico, Micronesia, and the Virgin Islands. The study was concerned primarily with the impact of federal bilingual education policy on each of the territories' bilingual education programs. Local bilingual education projects, therefore, were not visited or reviewed. Brief historical sketches of the status of bilingual education in each of the five U.S. territories, including philosophy, goals, budgetary considerations, materials and curriculum development, and legislation, are included. In addition, an analysis of the impact of federal bilingual education policy is provided. (Author/CFM)

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Supporting Volume I

of

A Study of State Programs in Bilingual Education

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION

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Report on Extra-State Jurisdictions

By

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1521 New Hampshire Ave., N.W.
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March 1977

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REPORT ON EXTRA-STATE JURISDICTIONS

SUPPORTING VOLUME I

OF

"A STUDY OF STATE PROGRAMS
IN BILINGUAL EDUCATION"

Under Contract No. HEW-300-75-0353

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March 1977

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INTRODUCTION

This volume contains an overview of bilingual education in each of the five extra-state jurisdictions which the study staff visited: American Samoa, Guam, the Commonwealth of Puerto Rico, Micronesia, and the Virgin Islands. Here, the study focus shifts slightly since in this area the study was concerned primarily with the impact of federal bilingual education policy on each of the territories' bilingual education programs. For this reason, local bilingual education projects were not visited or reviewed. Rather, this volume contains brief historical sketches of the status of bilingual education in each of the five U.S. territories including philosophy, goals, budgetary considerations, materials and curriculum development, and legislation. In addition, an analysis of the impact of federal bilingual education policy is provided.

I. AMERICAN SAMOA

A. Background

American Samoa consists of six inhabited islands in the far reaches of the Southwest/Central Pacific Ocean, approximately 2,500 miles southwest of Hawaii. The largest of these islands, Tutuila, supports nearly all of the territory's population and educational activity. For example, 23 of the 28 American Samoan elementary schools and three of the four high schools are located on Tutuila. Of the five other islands, only one, Annu'u is relatively close to Tutuila -- just a mile off shore. Swain's Island is 214 miles distant from Tutuila and the Manua Islands (three islands comprising the remainder of populated American Samoa) are more than 60 miles distant. In a pragmatic sense, Tutuila is American Samoa. All commercial as well as official activity is conducted from locations in Tutuila and in the vicinity of Pago Pago harbor.

Institutionalized education in American Samoa is rather young. The general educational goals promulgated in 1935 are accepted as the beginning of institutionalized education in Samoa. These goals guided education on the islands for 20 years. The goals simply stated that the schools would attempt to perpetuate the best of Samoan culture and at the same time provide the native community with those intellectual and social tools necessary to meet the changing social environment. In 1955 these goals were officially redefined.

The new goals mandated that Samoan schools teach both Samoan and English in the elementary grades and include reading, writing, arithmetic, science, health, social sciences, and vocational preparation. These remained the goals of Samoan education until 1961 when a critical shortage of qualified teachers resulted in the implementation of a school rehabilitation program using the closed circuit instructional television program. The basic features of this program were developed as a result of recommendations made to the U.S. Congress by the Samoan Committee for Interior and Insular Affairs. The Committee's report to Congress contained a thorough analysis of the islands' educational system and recommended that instructional television be implemented to improve the educational level of the islands as rapidly as possible. The instructional television alternative had some rather favorable advantages: one, it required a small staff to implement; two, it would bring quality instruction to all classrooms including the outlying areas; and three, instruction could be observed and reinforced by native teachers thereby helping these teachers to upgrade their classroom and teaching skills.

Instructional television was fully functional in American Samoa in 1964. In 1971, the educational program was again seriously reassessed and changed. The role of instructional television was redefined and a massive inservice program geared to upgrading the skills of instructional personnel was launched. This program, implemented in cooperation with the University of Hawaii, addressed the very low educational grade level achievements of native teachers, some as low as 4th and 6th grade.* In addition, the curriculum was revamped to provide continuity from early childhood grades through the Community College, increase the emphasis placed on education, and provide for the education of children with learning deficiencies. With the inception of these changes, the Samoan educational program committed itself to the concept and practices of individualized instruction.

It is interesting to note that although one often finds references to preserving the cultural heritage of American Samoan children, one seldom finds any reference to assuring the preservation of the native Samoan language. Although the Department of Education in American Samoa has long understood the difficulties encountered by limited English speaking children in the classroom, until recently the only reference we could find relative to bilingual instruction in American Samoan schools was the following statement:

> "Although English is the official language of instruction in schools of American Samoa, it is recognized that, at times, learning may be facilitated by teachers and students communicating in Samoan. Thus, a classroom teacher may use the Samoan language to communicate instructions and concepts or to foster student responses whenever he believes that communication with an individual student, or with an entire class, is not possible in English. In addition, a student may be allowed to respond in Samoan when a teacher believes the student's lack of fluency in English serves as a deterrent to class participation and learning".**

This statement appears to have formalized a long standing process which had been in practice for some time. Teachers who were aware of the benefits to be gained from the use of Samoan in the classroom were practicing, at least to a limited degree, bilingual instruction. In addition, although the Department of Education was cognizant of the educational limitations of monolingual English curriculum materials, there had not been sufficient funding to allow the establishment of a curriculum development program from the DOE general budget.

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* Statement, Mrs. Patsey T. Mink, Member, Subcommittee on Elementary, Secondary, and Vocational Education, U.S. House of Representatives.

** Taken from a September 1, 1971, policy statement signed by the Director, Department of Education, American Samoa.

The following statistics focus on the current (Fiscal Year 1976) status of the American Samoan educational system.

• Students Enrolled Pre-school through High School	10,000
• Educational Costs per Student Enrolled	
1st through 12th Grade	$321
Pre-school	$974
• General Education & Culture Budget	$6,072,000
• Federal Monies Expended in Education	$5,100,000
• Local Appropriations for Education	$ 972,000
• Approximate Number of Students Graduating from High School Yearly	500
• Number Entering College Yearly	25 - 30
• Percent of Native, Samoa Educated, Teachers in the System	Approx: 90%
• Percent of Mainland, U.S. Educated, Teachers in the System	Approx: 10%
• Grade Level Achievement of Native, Samoa Educated, Teachers	6th - 12th

In February 1974, the American Samoan Department of Education for the first time, applied for funding of an ESEA Title VII Bilingual Bicultural Education Project. The project was funded and appears to represent the only impact of federal bilingual education policy on both the educational system and the students enrolled in American Samoan schools. A brief description of the project follows:

A set of long-range (five year) goals provide guidance and direction to the Samoan Bilingual Education Project. These goals, as stated in the funding proposal, are centered around the following:

- Development and implementation, by June 1979, of a comprehensive bilingual education program in all Samoan schools.
- Designing, field testing, and producing student materials, written in the Samoan language, appropriate for instruction in language arts, mathematics, social studies, and science.
- Long-term inservice training activities to prepare bilingual education instruction personnel and administrators.
- Preparing a corps of at least 10 professional bilingual specialists who will be capable of updating or revising the bilingual materials and procedures with a minimum of outside help.
- Implementing preservice teacher training curriculums in the Community College to prepare bilingual teachers.
- Developing a permanent organization that fosters extensive community involvement in the bilingual program.

In order to achieve the long-term goals, the Samoan Bilingual Education Project has instituted a program of materials development, teacher training, and utilization of materials in pilot schools. The activities engaged in during this period relate directly to the six goals listed above.

Producing Samoan language materials is the most demanding task the Samoan Bilingual Education Project faces. Virtually no materials existed prior to the commencement of materials development through this project. Those scant materials that did exist were not developed on the basis of an integrated long range program plan. One of the main program goals is meant to fill this void, and the project is now actively engaged in this function.

One of the distinct advantages that American Samoa has over most other locations implementing bilingual education programs is that there is not a lack of bilingual teachers because a majority of the teachers are native Samoans who are bilingual. For example, the bilingual project is working with 45 teachers in nine pilot schools and 34 of the 45 teachers are bilingual Samoan/English. Training of teachers for the program thus centers primarily around the development of teacher-made materials and the use of these materials in the classroom.

The nine pilot schools currently in the program are field testing materials and procedures developed by the project prior to their use in the entire American Samoa school system. Presently, the materials are being developed for the complete range of content areas in grades seven and eight. After demonstrating that the seventh and eight grade materials and procedures are effective, the program staff will begin simultaneously implementing the 7th and 8th grade program on a district-wide basis and developing materials and procedures for other grade levels on a pilot basis. The continued pilot-implementation paradigm is designed to result in a total preschool through grade 12 program being implemented in Samoan schools by the end of the 5th year of the project, 1979.

B. Impact

Thus far, the apparent impact of federal policies and programs in bilingual education on the educational system and the children of American Samoa has been moderate. Nine pilot schools, involving 45 teachers and 1,200 children at the 7th and 8th grade levels, are involved in the field testing of curriculum materials and implementation procedures. Bilingual education is therefore still an experimental entity.

Initially, community reception to the bilingual educational instruction program was mixed. While some teachers and principals were openly optimistic about the potential beneficial effects of bilingual education on the children's

learning, others were quietly suspicious. Apparently the suspicious members were concerned that the bilingual education project was an attempt to replace the English language with Samoan in the schools.

Currently, the environment appears to be receptive to the bilingual education effort. Staff members are quick to point out many instances where children have "blossomed" as a result of using ethnic Samoan educational materials in the classroom and experiencing Samoan as the language of instruction. These results have been instrumental in changing the attitude of many of the concerned educators. Also, the project, through its activities in developing materials and procedures for use in the pilot classrooms, has demonstrated that the Samoan educators are planning to implement a bilingual education concept and are not replacing English in Samoan classrooms.

The future of bilingual education in American Samoa depends on the success of the current Title VII project. Indeed, the legislative and educational climates favor continued support for bilingual education if the project demonstrates success. Both the Samoan legislature and the Director of the Department of Education support the bilingual education concept.

II. GUAM

A. Background

In addition to English, the native language of approximately one-third of the population of Guam, three other languages are common to large proportions of the residents of this island (see Table 1). These are:

- Chamorro - spoken by native Guamanians comprising about 1/3 of the island's population. Chamorro is the native language of the people indigenous to the Mariana Islands, Guam being the southernmost island of this island chain. There are approximately 75,000 native speakers of Chamorro and the majority, about 66%, live in Guam. Chamorro is closely related to the languages of the Philippines and shares common grammatical similarities with these languages. A feature of Chamorro is that it has borrowed extensively from Spanish, the language of the country which ruled the area for over 300 years.

- Tagalog and/or Ilokano - spoken by Filipinos who have migrated to Guam. Filipinos comprise about 1/3 of the island's population and together with Americans and native Guamanians make up over 90% of Guam's population.

Since English is the language of instruction in Guam's public schools, native Guamanian and Filipino children experience some difficulty in the early grades which is easily overcome. Since the common language of the island is English, parents of native Guamanian and Filipino children accept the teaching of English in the school system. Some parents are reluctant to accept any change since they feel that any changes in the language curriculum may affect their children's ability to compete in the English speaking environment of the island.

Recently, and particularly since the implementation of a Title VII Bilingual Education Experimental English/Chamorro Project in the public schools in 1970, Chamorro speaking parents are urging the schools to teach their children Chamorro as well as English. This desire appears to be motivated by the fear that Chamorro may become a dead language since young Guamanians are using English to the exclusion of Chamorro. The Board of Education responded to this concern in a special meeting in April 1973 by unanimously approving a position paper making Chamorro language and cultural studies an educational objective. On July 2, 1973, Governor Carlos Comancho signed Bill 269 into Public Law 12-31 (12th Guam Legislature, 1973 Regular Sessions) authorizing the Board of Education to initiate and develop a bilingual bicultural education program emphasizing the language

and culture of the Chamorro people. On May 1974 the Governor signed Bill 84 into Public Law 12-132 amending the Government Code of Guam in order to make English and Chamorro the official languages of the island.

TABLE 1

NATIONALITY/ETHNIC COMPOSITION OF STUDENTS ENROLLED IN GUAM'S SCHOOL SYSTEM DURING THE 1975-1976 SCHOOL YEAR

Ethnic Background or Language	Elementary School	Secondary School	TOTAL
Guamanian (Chamorro)	8,797	6,832	15,629
Filipino (Tagalog/Ilokano)	2,957	1,905	4,862
Pacific Islander (Various Languages)	241	179	420
Oriental (Asiatic Languages)	469	363	832
Caucasian (English)	3,620	1,681	5,301
Black (English)	161	91	252
Vietnamese (Asiatic Languages)	93	0	93
Others	249	371	620
TOTAL	16,587	11,422	28,009

In April 1970, the Guam Department of Education applied for and received a grant under ESEA Title VII, Bilingual Education Act, to implement an experimental bilingual education program (Chamorro-English) in two target schools at the kindergarten level. Starting with the kindergarten during 1970-1971 school year, the program was expanded to another grade level for 5 consecutive years until it was defunded after the 1974-1975 school year. At that time 48 classrooms and approximately 1,200 students and seven schools were participating in the program. Though not funded by Title VII for the 1975-1976 school year, the program continues on active status using the materials, curricula, techniques, and personnel developed through Title VII. It is now under the aegis of the Chamorro Language and Culture Program authorized by Guam's Public Law 12-31.

In each of school years 1973-1974, 1974-1975, and 1975-1976, Guam received over $600,000 in Emergency School Aid Act money. This money was used to fund the Chamorro Language and Culture Program authorized by Guam Public Law 12-31 for 4th, 5th, and 6th graders during the 1973-1974 and 1974-1975 school years. During the current school year, 1975-1976, since Title VII funds were not received, this money and an additional $130,000 allocated from local revenue is being used to support both the old Title VII Bilingual Education Program for kindergarten through 4th grade and the Chamorro Language and Culture Program for 4th, 5th, and 6th graders. This is further detailed in Table 2.

TABLE 2

FEDERAL SCHOOL AID FUNDS ALLOCATION FOR GUAM, FY 1976

Type	Purpose	Amount	
ESEA Title I	Administration	$ 25,000	
	Children of Low Income Families	1,015,694	
	Handicapped	84,000	
ESEA Title III	State Programs	88,761	
ESEA Title IV	Innovations and Support	75,886	
ESEA Title V	Grants to Strengthen SEA's	48,130	
	SUB-TOTAL ESEA		$1,337,451
ESAA Title VII	Chamorro Language & Culture Program	569,846	
	Guam Teacher Corps	151,595	
	Environmental Education	44,429	
	SUB-TOTAL ESAA		$ 765,870
	TOTAL		$2,103,321

Guam plans to apply for ESEA Title VII funds for the 1976-1977 school year in order to implement a program similar to the Chamorro Language and Culture Program for the junior high school grades. If successful, it will be able to provide some form of Chamorro-English bilingual education to all students, K through 9th grade, volunteering for the Chamorro Language and Culture Program. No plans are being made to include Tagalog or other languages and cultures in the program.

B. Impact

U. S. federal policy in bilingual education has had a significant impact on Chamorro-English bilingual education programs and projects, and on the Chamorro-speaking language minority of Guam. As a result of the apparent successes with ESEA Title VII experimental bilingual education programs, the native Guamanian population, Guam's School Board, and Guam's legislature and government have taken action to support bilingual education efforts in general, and Chamorro Language and Culture programs in particular. The School Board has declared Chamorro language and culture studies an educational objective, and the legislature passed and the Governor approved a law authorizing the Department of Education to initiate and develop a bilingual bicultural education program emphasizing the language and culture of the Chamorro people. The legislature also passed and the Governor approved a law declaring English and Chamorro as the official languages of Guam. This is an island which as late as two or three years ago had a law prohibiting the speaking of anything by English in any public building or facility.

Federal policy in bilingual education has also demonstrated to Chamorro-speaking parents that bilingual bicultural education has a positive effect on their children's education. Supported by bilingual education funds, a Chamorro language dictionary, together with a supporting lexicon and reference grammar, was developed. The dictionary, grammar, and lexicon has served as the basis for developing other bilingual bicultural materials. Now, Native Guamanian parents participate in bilingual educational activities by helping to record island legends and historical facts in Chamorro.

Not all impact has been as positive as the above would indicate. English-speaking parents, primarily military and civil servant personnel, find the current emphasis on Guamanian culture and language damaging to the quality of education their children receive. They comment about recent disturbances in the schools which they feel have magnified language, cultural, and racial differences among the student population.

Furthermore, they are amazed by the School Board's and some legislators' emphasis on "the bilingual problem" and the expenditure of large sums in emphasizing differences which they feel should be minimized. So great has been the impact on this language and cultural element of Guam's population that requests for the implementation of a Department of Defense School System are being made. This is adamantly opposed by the local island government.

The Filipino cultural and language minority in Guam is silent on bilingual education. The Department of Education has not taken any action to implement any programs in the Filipino culture and languages, and does not plan to do so in the near future.

III. COMMONWEALTH OF PUERTO RICO

A. Background

Puerto Rico, an island in the Caribbean, approximately 1,110 miles southeast of Washington, D.C., has 3,425 square miles and measures about 100 miles east to west and roughly 40 miles north to south. Its population numbers over three million inhabitants, with a population density of 795 persons per square mile, one of the highest in the world. The Puerto Rican birthrate is also one of the highest in the world; and poverty, measured by the poverty level established by the President's Council of Economic Advisors, is widespread.

Puerto Rico's society represents a blend of Spanish, native Indian, and African peoples and customs. Prior to the Spanish discovery of Puerto Rico in 1493, the island was inhabited by the peaceful and industrious Taino Indians, a group belonging to the Arawak culture of South America who had conquered and assimilated other Indian tribes scattered throughout the island. With the advent of Spanish colonization, the Taino population gradually declined, but left an indelible imprint on the culture of the colonizers. Having disposed of the existing gold, the Spanish converted Puerto Rico to an agricultural colony, with heavy emphasis on sugar production and the importation of large numbers of African slaves to work on the sugar cane plantations. After almost 400 years of Spanish administration, Puerto Rico was ceded to the United States at the close of the Spanish American War in 1898, and was administered as a U.S. territoty until it attained commonwealth status in 1952.

Despite its status as a U.S. commonwealth and its rapid advance from an agrarian economy to an industrial/tourist service economy, Puerto Rico faces many of the problems common to developing nations. These problems center around overpopulation, poverty, and widespread unemployment. In 1970, Puerto Rico had an unemployment rate of over 10%, more than double the U.S. national average. By early 1976, this figure had climbed to 22% of the work force, a situation which accounts for much of the Puerto Rican migration to the U.S. mainland. The effect of these problems are magnified in the educational system as revealed by the following figures:

- The median school years completed by Puerto Ricans 25 years or older is seven.
- The illiteracy rate for Puerto Ricans 10 years or older is 11%.
- Only 77% of all school age children were enrolled in school during the 1974-1975 school year.

- Due to lack of space and trained teachers, the regular school day has been reduced to one half. As a result, there are approximately 250,000 students who lack one to three hours of school daily.

- Freezing of the educational budget at the level of Fiscal Year 1975 has forced the elimination of all preschool classes.

Rounding out this picture is the fact that only 60% of the children enrolled in the 1st grade in 1962 reached the 9th grade and only 34% of these children graduated from high school, compared to a U.S. mainland average of 75%.

For nearly 400 years, Spanish has been the official language of Puerto Rico. With the U.S. territorial administration in 1898, the beginning of the teaching of English in Puerto Rico began also marked the beginning of the blending of Anglo Saxon culture with the Spanish, native Indian, and African cultures of the island.

In the 50 year period between 1898 and 1948, major changes in language policies helped shape the present day approach to education in Puerto Rico. For example:

- In 1900, the "Brumbaugh Policy" (Dr. Martin Brumbaugh, first American Commissioner of Education) was introduced. This policy provided for the teaching of both English and Spanish beginning at the 1st grade. Additionally, it established Spanish as the medium of instruction through the 8th grade and English as the medium of instruction through the 12th grade.

- In 1905, Brumbaugh's successor, Dr. Ronald Faulkner, ordered English as the sole medium of instruction at all grades throughout the school system.

- In 1916, Commissioner Paul Miller reinstituted Spanish as the language of instruction through the 4th grade, directed that the 5th grade be taught in both Spanish and English, and made English the medium of instruction from the 6th to the 12th grades.

- In 1934, Spanish became the language of instruction through the 8th grade and the teaching of English was instituted as a second language for 90 minutes per day in the 7th and 8th grades.

This long period of experimentation with language policies ended in 1947 when Commissioner Mariano Villaronga establish Spanish as the sole medium of instruction in all Puerto Rican schools. Since then, the policy of

teaching English as a special and required subject, under the General Education Code, and using Spanish as the medium of instruction at all levels of the school system has been the rule.

Puerto Rico has a highly centralized public school system controlled by the Department of Public Instruction. The head of this department bears the title of Secretary of Education and is a member of the Governor's cabinet. The Department of Education formulates the educational policies which are then relayed to six educational regions. Responsibility for implementing educational policies is vested in the Undersecretary for Academic Affairs who is responsible for planning, developing, and implementing the school curriculum. For comparison purposes, the Secretary of Education is the equivalent of the Chief State School Officer, and the Department of Education serves as both a state educational agency and a local educational agency. See the Organization Chart on the following page.

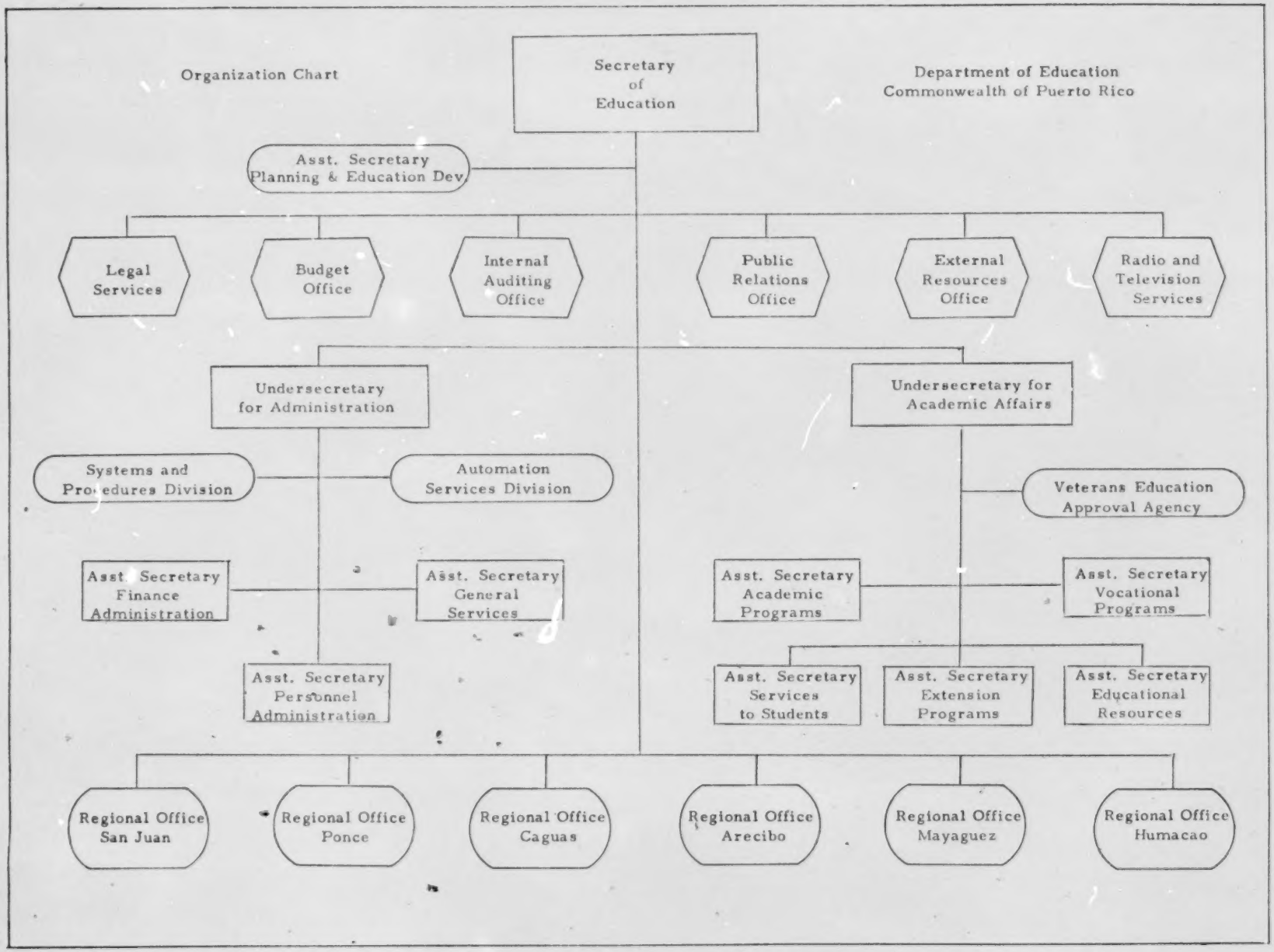
There are three academic levels in the public school system:

- Elementary (kindergarten through 6th grade);
- Intermediate (grades 7th through 9th); and
- Superior (grades 10th through 12th).

In 1974-1975, there were 1,964 public schools and 310 private schools engaged in elementary, secondary, and vocational education with a total enrollment of 704,106.

The Commonwealth of Puerto Rico provides, in large part, the financial resources necessary for operation of its school system from its general budget. For school year 1974-1975, costs amounted to over $430 million, with a per capita student cost of $613.00. Even though approximately 1/3 of the government's budget is for education, an ever-increasing population creates complex and insurmountable problems. Among the many problems are few adequate schools, lack of well trained or qualified teachers, double enrollment precipitated by the return of large numbers of Puerto Ricans from the U.S. mainland, overcrowded classrooms, and lack of suitable textbooks and materials for all students enrolled. Additionally, Puerto Rico experiences an extremely high dropout rate especially in rural areas.

In 1970, the Census figures indicated that Puerto Rico is fast becoming a bilingual society. The Census Bureau reports that more than 38% of Puerto Rico's population speaks English, including 1/3 of the 1.5 million people 10 years or older who have not yet finished high school and 403,000 of its more than 470,000 high school graduates.


Organization Chart
Secretary of Education
Department of Education
Commonwealth of Puerto Rico
Asst. Secretary Planning & Education Dev.
Legal Services
Budget Office
Internal Auditing Office
Public Relations Office
External Resources Office
Radio and Television Services
Undersecretary for Administration
Undersecretary for Academic Affairs
Systems and Procedures Division
Automation Services Division
Veterans Education Approval Agency
Asst. Secretary Finance Administration
Asst. Secretary General Services
Asst. Secretary Academic Programs
Asst. Secretary Vocational Programs
Asst. Secretary Personnel Administration
Asst. Secretary Services to Students
Asst. Secretary Extension Programs
Asst. Secretary Educational Resources
Regional Office San Juan
Regional Office Ponce
Regional Office Caguas
Regional Office Arecibo
Regional Office Mayaguez
Regional Office Humacao

A current problem confronting the Puerto Rican educational system centers around the large number of Puerto Rican school age children returning to Puerto Rico from the U.S. mainland. The Department of Education estimates that there are approximately 60,000 of these children in the school system who speak "street English" but are otherwise not functional in either English or Spanish. Since 1972, an ESEA Title VII Bilingual Education Program using Spanish as the second language and a remedial program funded through the Emergency School Aid Act have attempted to grapple with this problem. However, these programs, according to Department of Education sources, only reached approximately 2,000 students.

B. Impact

Since Puerto Rico has been grappling with the problems inherent in bilingual education since the early 1900's, it is difficult to assess the impact of current federal bilingual education policy on the island's educational system and its students. At best, however, its impact appears minimal. Of the more than $430 million expended in education during Fiscal Year 1975, only $556,100 were obtained through the ESEA Title VII Bilingual Education Program. Of the 704,106 students enrolled, only 2,000 were enrolled in an ESEA Title VII or ESAA funded bilingual education program.

The Commonwealth of Puerto Rico shares with many areas in the U.S. mainland, some of the problems inherent in a bilingual bicultural society. While in the U.S., the majority group is English dominant, Puerto Rico faces a reverse situation in that the English dominant group faces severe language and culture barriers because the language of instruction in the public school system is Spanish. Thus, many English dominant children, including the many returnees from the U.S. mainland, suffer language difficulties and problems of social adjustment.

The intent of the Federal Bilingual Education Act is to counteract language and cultural barriers through the provision of assistance for the development of programs designed to meet the special educational needs of children of limited English speaking ability. This provision includes the vast majority of children who attend the public schools of Puerto Rico, since the characteristics of limited English speaking life are the norm in Puerto Rico rather than the exception.

Briefly stated, federal bilingual education policy is perceived by many in Puerto Rico as having a diluted impact because the legislation establishing this program is primarily concerned with conditions existing in the U.S. mainland, and thus not designed to function within the unique socioeconomic, cultural, and linguistic setting of Puerto Rico. This problem appears to pervade the public school system at all levels where federal funds are used to support educational activities.

Puerto Rican school administrators contend that the diluted impact of federal educational policy upon the Puerto Rican bilingual education effort centers around compliance with programmatic requirements which is essential for continued federal support under this categorical program. For example, the program requires the establishment of advisory councils composed of parents and representatives of the community. These councils are designed to operate at the local community level and/or at the school or project level. However, since the Puerto Rican public school system is highly centralized, the operation of a large number of advisory councils at the local level can result in the determination of educational needs and priorities which fragment and hinder the global approach which is seen as the most effective way of dealing with the realities of local problems.

Although many of the problems which were reported are difficult to substantiate, it is interesting to note that Puerto Rico shares these problems with other extra-state jurisdictions, such as the Virgin Islands and the Trust Territories of the Pacific Islands, where educational officials voiced the same objections regarding policy flexibility. Nevertheless, support of bilingual education activities is seen not only as a favorable development, but also as a vitally necessary one, particularly if the goal of providing a sound education to Puerto Rican children returning from the mainland is to be attained.*

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* See "Report on Oversight on the Outlying Areas," printed for the U.S. House of Representatives Committee on Education and Labor, June 11, 1975.

IV. TRUST TERRITORY OF THE PACIFIC ISLANDS (properly called MICRONESIA)

A. Background

If one can visualize the continental United States flooded with water and only a few thousand mountain peaks and hilltops remaining above sea level, one has a reasonably accurate mental picture of the vast expanse of the Pacific Ocean area called the Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands. Gone would be all reasonable means of bulk transportation as well as the popular means of communication between peoples, and only the larger hilltops would be able to support any large numbers of population.

The Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands was entrusted to the United States by the United Nations after World War II. Since then, its administration and government has moved through three phases: one, U.S. Department of Defense - Navy, two, U.S. Department of the Interior - primarily American national controlled, and three, U.S. Department of the Interior - with considerable control by indigenous island people. The conditions of the trust imposed on the U.S. by the United Nations required that periodic reports concerning the status and condition of the Trust Territory be made to the U.N. governing body, and that teams of United Nations members be allowed to enter the territory and inspect its condition or review its status.

Bilingual education is not new to Micronesia. Before the United States acquired responsibility for its government and administration, Spain, Germany, and Japan had colonized, occupied, and administered its islands. During these regimes, starting in 1669 and ending in 1945, institutionalized education was introduced in different forms and languages. Spanish language arts were taught from 1669 to 1898; German from 1898 to 1914; and Japanese from 1914 to 1945. Bilingual education and bilingualism, in a specific sense, began during these periods though it was incidental rather than the result of a specific policy. For example, during the Japanese occupation, island children learned about their own culture and communicated in their daily activities in the language of their parents. However, they were required to learn Japanese during a compulsory three-year elementary school period. Students became bilingual in the sense that they concurrently used their own language within their island culture and used Japanese in school or when dealing with Japanese institutions.

The American system of education in Micronesia, as administered by the Navy Department, was based on the United Nations' Charter. Educational policy included the requirement that "schools should teach, foster, and encourage native languages, history, arts and crafts, and give instruction in English language arts to inhabitants of all ages." When education became the responsibility of a civilian government under the Department of the Interior in 1951, a committee was establish to make recommendations about educational policy. The recommendations made are reflected in the 1955 Micronesia Department of Education manual which states:

> "American teachers in Micronesia need continually to be reminding themselves that they are not to impose an American curriculum or pattern of education upon their students. The curriculum is always, in every society, a reflection of a people's culture, that is, the way they think, feel, believe, behave, ... A society constructed in one culture and reflecting that culture cannot have meaning in another culture."

In addition, the manual provides that two languages shall be used in the schools of the Trust Territory, the island language and English.

There are nine major languages native to the people of the Trust Territory: Chamorro, Palauan, Yapese, Ponapean, Trukese, Marxhallese, Kapingamarangi, Nukuran, and Carolinian. There are more than nine different cultures and sets of traditions. As a result, education, and particularly bilingual education, presents some rather unique problems for Micronesian educators. For example:

- There is not any language that is spoken or understood by all inhabitants of Micronesia. Consequently, there is no common medium for oral communication. English is being taught to fill this need.

- With rare exceptions, there are no written materials in any of the native languages spoken in Micronesia.

- Until a few years ago, there was no commonly accepted foundation for writing in any of the Micronesian languages. Today, attempts are being made to develop accepted grammars, dictionaries, and supporting lexicons for some Micronesian languages.

All of the regular funds supporting general education in the Trust Territory are appropriated by the U.S. Congress and administered through the Department of the Interior. Although the single largest portion of the Territory's regular budget is allocated for general education, the

total amount available for per pupil expenditures is well below that of any of the states or any of our other extra-jurisdiction territories or possessions. During the 1974-1975 school year, $210 were available for expenditures per elementary school student, and $568 were spent per secondary school student which included the cost of housing and feeding about 3,000 of these students. These funds raised the overall 1974-1975 amount available for the education of Micronesian students from $300 to $382, over 25%.

Micronesians are appreciative of federal policies which allow them to participate in these programs since they recognize that of all the extra-jurisdiction territories and possessions under U.S. control, they are the only territory whose inhabitants are not considered citizens of the United States.

Outside influence is flowing into Micronesia so rapidly that its inhabitants find it difficult to cope with the resulting impact. Notwithstanding these problems, Micronesians are currently well into the transformation from a subsistence economy to a limited capitalistic society. They know they must cope with and make adjustments to these two extremes. To this extent, there is much dialogue about two conflicting alternatives for action: one, that Micronesians must stay in their villages and endure a substandard subsistence economy; and two, that they must pursue higher education, learning experiences, and disciplines in order to prepare themselves for participation in the mainstream of world progress and modernization. The two views are based on the rationale that Micronesians cannot be happy unless they live in their traditional manner or unless they adopt fully to the American ways of life and disregard their traditions and customs. Micronesian educators are also exploring other alternatives for action.

Micronesian educators are convinced that because Micronesia today is caught in a cross-cultural current generated by Micronesian and American/Western culture, and because Micronesia itself is multiethnic and multicultural, educators must: (1) identify each native cultural group; (2) unify the diverse cultural groups around a common denominator; and (3) increase contact and interaction among Micronesians, Americans, and other foreign nationals. In order to simultaneously sustain and perpetuate action around these three concerns, it is their strong conviction that bilingual bicultural education continues to be the appropriate design for their educational system.

B. Impact

As stated above, bilingual education in its basic sense has existed in the American designed Micronesian educational system since 1951. Two languages are being used to instruct children even though in its early stages the system did not encourage the use of the native language. Though minimal, early attempts were made to develop native language reading materials and reading programs and attempts were also made to infuse Micronesian culture into the curriculum.

In the early 60's, Micronesian parents began to express concern about their children's education. They began to feel that though some of their children were learning English, few were getting an "education," particularly if the education they received concerned subjects relevant only to American children in American settings and tended to minimize matters related to Micronesian culture and values. This concern was expressed by the Micronesian Congress in a 1967 resolution which called for the development of Micronesian language dictionaries and grammars. A 1970 resolution requested the Director of Education to include subjects relevant to Micronesian cultures and traditions in elementary and secondary school curriculums. As a result, the Trust Territory government entered into a contract with the University of Hawaii for the development of bilingual (English/Native Language) dictionaries and reference grammars for each of the major Micronesian languages, and for the provision of recommendations to Trust Territory District Orthography Committees regarding standardized orthographies. The contract ended June 1973, and the reference grammars, dictionaries, and standardized orthographies were recently completed.

Meanwhile, in 1973, two Trust Territory districts began ESEA Title III projects designed to meet concerns about cultural relevance in education. The projects planned to begin a child's education by teaching reading in the native language so that subsequent learning to read and write English would be easier. Since then, several special federally funded programs in education have been implemented, including programs in bilingual education.

Today, there are eight bilingual education demonstration projects in Micronesia using ESEA Title VII funds, including a unique trilingual project using Kapingamarangi, Ponapean, and English. This particular project is funded with ESEA Title I funds. The table shown below, Table 3, gives an indication as to the number of students in need of bilingual bicultural education and the number of students currently participating in bilingual education.

TABLE 3

MICRONESIAN BILINGUAL EDUCATIONS NEEDS
(1975-1976 SCHOOL YEAR), BY EDUCATIONAL DISTRICT

Educational District	Total Students in Need of Bilingual Education	Students Enrolled in Bilingual Education Programs
Marianas	4,968	821
Marshalls	8,066	315
Palau	4,631	352
Ponape	5,969	1,202
Kusaie	1,512	146
Truk	9,568	230
Yap	2,064	451
TOTAL	36,788	3,517

Note: Micronesia defines bilingual education as the use of two languages, one of which is English, as the instructional medium. It considers that all its elementary and secondary school students are in need of bilingual education.

It is interesting to note that the Micronesian Department of Education considers all its students in need of bilingual bicultural education. To meet this need, ESEA education assistance funds for the 1975-1976 school year were allocated as follows:

- Title I: $ 8,632
- Title VII: $613,405

These were supplemented by an additional $316,000 of ESEA Title III funds supporting bilingual education teacher training and development of bilingual reading materials and by $36,000 of Education Professions Development Act funds helping to alleviate the critical shortage of qualified English language teachers.

Micronesia suffers from a critical shortage of formally educated and qualified teachers. Only two of approximately 1,400 elementary and secondary school teachers have Master's degrees and only 5% have a Bachelor's degree. Over 80% of all public school teachers in Micronesia have only a high school diploma or a locally issued high school equivalency certificate. Table 4 below highlights these statistics. In order to alleviate this problem, a plan has been developed to raise the formal educational level of all Micronesian

teachers to at least the associate degree level within seven years. To implement this plan, all District Departments of Education are working with the Community College of Micronesia through an extension program funded by ESEA Title III monies.

TABLE 5

EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATIONS OF TRUST TERRITORY TEACHERS

Educational District	Total Teachers	QUALIFICATIONS				
		Less Than High School	High School	AA/AS Degree	BA/BS Degree	MA/MS Degree
Marianas	186	2.7%	87.6%	4.9%	5.9%	0.5%
Marshalls	269	6.0%	84.2%	8.6%	0.8%	0.4%
Palau	218	1.8%	76.7%	10.0%	11.5%	1.8%
Ponape	297	2.7%	80.1%	13.1%	4.1%	2.7%
Kusaie	54	None	72.9%	11.7%	4.0%	3.0%
Truk	270	13.2%	72.9%	11.7%	2.2%	None
Yap	108	None	78.7%	16.7%	4.6%	None
TOTAL	1,402	3.9%	81.0%	10.0%	5.0%	0.1%

As indicated above, federal bilingual education policies, together with the categorical grants being provided, have had tremendous impact on the educational system of the territory, its teachers, and its students. Bilingual education in Micronesia is currently receiving widespread attention. The current aim of this effort is to provide tried and tested methods for the further design of bilingual education programs in all Trust Territory schools and to develop the staff and the materials necessary to implement these programs. In March 1975, as a result of the need for developing comprehensive and detailed grant proposals in accordance with federal bilingual education policy, the Trust Territory convened a bilingual education conference. The conference members were assigned the tasks of developing a statement that would generally reflect the bilingual educational needs of the Territory and listing goals and approaches that would be common to all schools in the territory. The results of this conference, a document titled "General Statement Reflecting Bilingual Education Needs, Goals, and Approaches Common to all Districts of the Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands," now serves as the foundation for guiding and directing general and bilingual education in Micronesia.

The renewed recognition throughout the Trust Territory of the need for complete curriculums in the native language of its children is a considerable departure from previous views. This renewed recognition can be attributed to U.S. federal policy in bilingual education. This policy made possible the funding which led to the development of new and more linguistically and culturally relevant approaches to education in Micronesia. Concerns about educational quality as reflected in changes in school curricula, the making of policy recommendations to the Congress of Micronesia, and general comments from parents and educators led to the assumptions that students, if they were learning at all, were learning at the expense of losing their own language and culture. The native language is often a more appropriate medium of instruction than English, and children can develop their skills better in their native tongue. Current federal policy in bilingual education is providing both the impetus and the means for testing and validating these assumptions.

There are still some rather basic unmet needs in Micronesia's educational system for which the Department of Education has not been able to find help in current federal program legislation. Principal among these are:

- Inservice teacher training and education;
- Educational facility design and construction; and
- Equipping and staffing higher educational institutions.

The Department 's administrators hope that flexibility can be built into existing and future programs which will allow them some latitude in planning, long-range funding, and the operation of their young but dynamic educational system.

V. VIRGIN ISLANDS

A. Background

The Virgin Islands consist of three islands, St. Thomas, St. John, and St. Croix situated approximately 1,000 miles southeast of Miami, Florida, and located in the curving chain of Caribbean islands known as the Greater and Lesser Antilles. These islands, discovered by Columbus in 1643, comprise about 300 square miles with St. Croix being the largest and St. John the smallest of the islands.

The social culture of the islands represents an extremely diverse blending of many cultural groups. The Carib Indians inhabited St. Croix while St. Thomas and St. John were inhabited by the Arawak Indians. From the early 15th century, the Virgin Islands were administered by a succession of European powers -- Spanish, British, Dutch, French, Maltese, and Danish flags flew in succession over Charlotte Amalie, the capital of the island territory. As in Puerto Rico, the islands' native Indian population was decimated by the ravages of epidemics, hard labor and wars, leaving the Europeans and the slaves imported for work in the cane fields to blot out their culture to the extent that today it is difficult to discern that they were once the sole inhabitants of these islands. Puerto Rican culture is easily discernible, particularly in the island of St. Croix where Puerto Ricans comprise about 50% of the population. These Puerto Rican immigrants, however, still maintain very strong identification with their home island, nurtured by familial bonds and their dominant language and culture, Spanish.

After 300 years of successive European colonial administrations, the Virgin Islands were purchased in 1919 by the United States from Denmark for $25,000,000. Today, they are a United States Territory. Virgin Islanders are autonomous and elect their own representatives as well as having a Resident Representative in Washington, D.C.

Virgin Islanders are no longer dependent on the vicissitudes of world market conditions brought on by fluctuations in sugar prices for their well being since even basic sugar production is now minimal. Instead, tourism constitutes the major industry in the islands. St. John, the smallest of the islands, is almost entirely a national preserve known as the Virgin Islands National Park. St. Thomas is a busy, thriving commercial center, with Charlotte Amalie, its principal city, constituting one of the busiest trade and navigation centers in the Caribbean. St. Croix, the largest and perhaps the most beautiful of the islands, is also the poorest. It is not favored by the heavy tourist trade that the other islands benefit from and depends on agricultural production and, as of recently, on the influx of a number of

large manufacturing concerns such as the Martin-Marietta Corporation which established a huge aluminum processing plant there . Although the Virgin Islands are not rich in resources, the standard of living is not as depressed as it is in the British Virgin Islands and Puerto Rico.

The U.S. Virgin Islands have a centralized public education system. Its Department of Education formulates educational policies which are then implemented by two educational school districts:

- the St. Thomas/St. John School District; and
- the St. Croix School District.

The two school districts, each headed by a Superintendent of Schools, assume direct responsibility for the implementation of the instructional programs in their geographic areas. However, only minor administrative functions are performed at this level. All matters relating to personnel and budgeting are centrally handled at the departmental level.

The educational program offered in the public school system is organized around three academic areas:

- Elementary . . . . . (kindergarten through 6th grade);
- Secondary . . . . . (7th through 12th grades); and
- Special Education. . . . . (kindergarten through 12th grade).

During the 1975-1976 school year, there were 35 public schools and 21 non-public schools operating in the system. Enrollment totaled 23,689 for the public schools, and 6,096 for the non-public schools as follows:

- Public School Enrollment:

  - St. Croix 12,043
  - St. Thomas 11,107
  - St. John 539

- Non-public School Enrollment

  - St. Croix 3,311
  - St. Thomas 2,785
  - St. John . . . . . None

Of the above, approximately 2,660 or 9% are limited English speakers.

The Government of the Virgin Islands believes that it provides, in large part, the financial resources necessary for operation of the school system. It must be noted, however, that funds used to support the educational program are totally drawn from the Virgin Islands' general operating budget, which in turn, is entirely made up of federal revenues. These revenues come back to the Government of the Virgin Islands through the Bureau of Customs or from the U.S. Department of the Treasury. In short, it is possible to say that any funds expended by the Government of the Virgin Islands in support of education, general as well as bilingual, are ultimately traceable to federal sources.* For bilingual education, specifically, the Virgin Islands expended the following sums last school year:

• ESEA Title III:	$ 15,774
• ESEA Title VII:	$253,250
• General V.I. Funds:	$ 44,000
Total:	$313,024

B. Impact

The U.S. Virgin Islands, unlike many of the other extra state jurisdictions administered by the United States, shares with the mainland many of the problems of educating limited English speaking children. As with all of the mainland states, the major language group in the Virgin Islands speaks English. As in many of the mainland states, there is a sizable Spanish speaking minority; however, the language minority situation is considerably more complex than the above would reveal.

The complexity arises from the fact that a sizeable alien population lives in the U.S. Virgin Islands, either as permanent resident aliens, temporary bonded workers, or illegally. Estimates of the size of this population group run anywhere from 19% to 45% of the total population. The Spanish dominant group, which mostly inhabits the island of St. Croix, is said to represent approximately 35% to 50% of the total population of that island. The influx of illegal aliens into the Virgin Islands is mainly from other islands in the West Indies, including the British Virgin Islands,

* There appears to be substantial controversy surrounding the issue of financing. The Government of the U. S. Virgin Islands claims that funds used to support education and other government functions are locally generated revenues while the Bureau of Customs, which handles all aspects of financial operations for the Virgin Islands, claims that they are funds which are collected as federal income taxes and are returned to the V. I. as subsidies. It appears that the Bureau of Customs' position on this issue is credible, since out of a total operating budget of $293 million for FY 1977, $100 million consists of federal direct subsidies, $80 million, federal income taxes, and only $46 million are locally generated tax revenues.

Barbados, St. Lucia, St. Kitts, Antigua, etc. While some of these aliens do speak English, many of them do not, coming from French, Danish, and Dutch possessions in the West Indies. In addition to the European languages spoken by many, the vast majority of aliens continue to use a variety of Caribbean dialects, such as Calypso. Thus, while English is the official language of the islands, dialectal fascimiles thereof seems to be prevalent in use.

According to Virgin Island educators and policy makers, federal bilingual education policy and regulations have had a mixed impact on the quality of the educational program offered to language minorities. From its inception, the legislation authorizing the establishment of this program was primarily concerned with conditions existing in the mainland and was not designed to function within the linguistic and political context of Virgin Islands' society or educational system.

The root of the problem, appears to lie in:

- The regulations accompanying the input of federal dollars in support of educational activities are inconsistent with the educational policy and regulations of the Government of the Virgin Islands, and

- The isolation and territorial status of the Virgin Islands which evokes complaints that its needs do not receive the same kind of consideration bestowed on the mainland states.

A good example involves the teacher shortage problem in the Virgin Islands. According to the Virgin Island Department of Education, while the school year 1975-1976 allocation under ESEA Title VII contained approximately $33,000 for teacher training, the Department of Education wanted to discourage teacher training sessions based on the fact that if the teachers were diverted from the classrooms for training, there would be a shortage of teachers for regular classroom instruction. Complicating this situation was the additional fact that the U.S. Virgin Islands had only one institution of higher education, the College of the Virgin Islands. This institution operated independently from the Department of Education and is not receptive to initiating a bilingual teacher training program. For this reason, Virgin Island education officials started establishing a program to go abroad for additional education. The $33,000 allocation for teacher training would barely cover the cost of the program. The end result was the withdrawal of the $33,000 allocated by ESEA Title VII for this purpose.

Another illustration of what is perceived as the basically negative or diluted impact of federal bilingual educational policy upon the operation of the bilingual education effort involves some of the programmatic requirements. For example, the provision of ESEA Title VII requires the establishment of advisory councils composed of parents and community representatives. According to Virgin Island Department of Education sources, parents and community members participation is minimal because most persons work six days a week and advisory council meetings can only take place on Sundays. These sources characterize parent participation as representing more of a hindrance than anything else. It should be noted that aversion to parental participation in educational decision making appears to be very much culture bound.

A further illustration of the Virgin Island situation is the ESEA Title VII provision regarding the use of instructional aids. While the use of instructional aides is a concept which has widespread application to the resolution of staff availability problems in the mainland, Virgin Islands officials claim that the concept has little significance in the context of the U.S. educational system because of local regulations. While the Virgin Island ESEA Title VII program is allocated a sum for paying the salaries of 22 instructional aides, aides cannot be hired because Virgin Islands law prohibits their use in teaching activities. Since bilingual education is the area where teacher aides are most critically needed, the funds allocated for this purpose cannot be used.

Two final areas of difficulty stem from the island's need for federal assistance and its isolation from the U.S. mainland. At the department level, officials stated, the only assistance provided by the U.S. Office of Education consisted of explaining DHEW guidelines and regulations. At the project level, according to staff interviewed, there was a total lack of knowledge concerning the availability of any type of technical assistance provided by USOE. Thus, while federal policy supports such activities in practice, no such assistance is provided.

Although the evidence is scant, there appears to be some indication that federal bilingual education policy, through its infusion of federal dollars, may be having a "multiplier effect." A good illustration of this impact can be gleaned from the experience of the Title III project. According to officials in the Virgin Islands Department of Education, funds had been allocated for a period of three years to support a bilingual education materials development project. Upon the regular and orderly termination of funding for this activity by the U.S. Office of Education, a thorough evaluation of the project was undertaken by the Virgin Islands Department of Education. The evaluation resulted in a recommendation that the program be continued with locally generated revenue. This recommendation was accepted, and upon the termination of federal funding the program was continued under local auspices.